A Guideline on Surge Voltages in AC Power Circuits Rated up to 600 V

François Martzloff
General Electric Company
Schenectady NY
f.martzloff@ieee.org

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Proceedings, 3rd International Symposium on Electromagnetic Compatibility, Rotterdam, 1979

Significance:
Part 2 – Development of standards – Reality checks

Progress report to the European EMC community on the development of what became IEEE Std 587.
Explains the proposition that a Ring Wave should be added to the traditional unidirectional impulses
NOTE: A parallel paper was presented to the 1979 IEEE PES community at the Summer Power Meeting under the title "*The Development of a Guideline on Surge Voltages in Low-Voltage AC Power Circuits".*

A GUIDELINE ON SURGE VOLTAGES IN AC POWER CIRCUITS RATED UP TO 600 V

F.D. Martzloff

General Electric Company
Corporate Research and Development
Schenectady, New York 12345, U.S.A.

Summary

Surge voltages occurring in ac power circuits can be the cause of misoperation or product failure for residential as well as industrial systems. The problem has received increased attention in recent years because miniaturized solid state devices are more sensitive to voltage surges (spikes and transients) than were their predecessors.

Although surge voltage amplitudes and their frequency of occurrence on unprotected circuits are well known, their waveshapes and energy content are less well known. On the basis of measurements, statistics, and theoretical considerations, a practical guideline for outlining the environment for use in predicting extreme waveshapes and energy content can nevertheless be established. The Surge Protective Device Committee of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers has been developing such a guideline, the essential elements of which are presented in this paper.

Surge voltages [1] occurring in ac power circuits rated up to 600 V can be represented by various waveshapes in an attempt to duplicate actual surge voltages. Two major types of surges reflecting differences in the environment are described to represent the situation realistically.

Systems located inside a building and separated from the overhead lines by some line impedance experience surge voltages of waveshapes and energy levels that differ from those of the outdoor environment. Outside systems exposed to direct lightning strikes or lightning-induced surges--typically overhead lines--experience levels implied by IEEE standards for secondary arresters. This guideline addresses particularly the hazards to these two types of systems [2].

Scope

The guideline presented here primarily addresses ac power circuits with rated voltages up to 600 V, although some of the conclusions offered could apply to higher voltages and also to some dc power systems. Other standards have been established, such as IEEE 472, *Guide for Surge Withstand Capability (SWC) Tests*, intended for the special case of high-voltage substation environments, and IEEE 28, *Standard for Surge Arresters for ac Power Circuits*, covering primarily the utilities environment. The guideline presented here intends to complement, not conflict with, existing standards, and to present a practical proposal for the selection of voltage and current tests to be applied in evaluating the surge withstand capability of equipment connected to these power circuits, primarily in residential and light industrial applications.

Some guidance is also presented on how to proceed from the environment description to the selection of "standard" test waves.

The surge voltages [1] considered in this guideline are those exceeding two per unit (or twice the peak operating voltage) and having durations ranging from a fraction of a microsecond to a millisecond. Overvoltages of less than two per unit are not covered here, nor are transients of longer duration resulting from power equipment operation and failure modes. Because these low-amplitude and long-duration surges are generally not amenable to suppression by conventional surge protective devices, they require different protection techniques.

1. The Origin of Surge Voltages

Surge voltages occurring in low-voltage ac power circuits originate from two major sources: load switching transients and direct or indirect lightning effects on the power system. Load switching transients can be further divided into transients associated with (1) major power system switching disturbances, such as capacitor bank switching; (2) minor switching near the point of interest, such as an appliance turnoff in a household or the turnoff of other loads in an individual system; (3) resonating circuits associated with switching devices, such as thyristors; and (4) various system faults, such as short circuits and arcing faults. Measurements and calculations of lightning effects have been made to yield data on what levels can be produced, even if the exact mechanism of any particular surge is unknown. The major mechanisms by which lightning produces surge voltages are the following:

(a) A direct lightning strike to a primary circuit injects high currents into the primary circuit, producing voltages by either flowing through ground resistance or flowing through the surge impedance of the primary conductors.
(b) A lightning strike that misses the line but hits a nearby object sets up electromagnetic fields which can induce voltages on the conductors of the primary circuit.
(c) The rapid collapse of voltage that occurs when a primary arrester operates to limit the primary voltage couples effectively through the capacitance of the transformer and produces surge voltages in addition to those coupled into the secondary circuit by normal transformer action.
(d) Lightning strikes the secondary circuits directly. Very high currents can be involved, exceeding the capability of conventional devices.
(e) Lightning ground current flow resulting from nearby direct-to-ground discharges couples onto the common ground impedance paths of the grounding network.

Fast-acting protection devices, such as current-limiting fuses and circuit breakers capable of clearing or beginning to part contacts in less than 2 ms, leave trapped inductive energy in the circuit upstream; upon collapse of the field, very high voltages are generated.

Transient overvoltages [1] associated with the switching of power factor correction capacitors have lower frequencies than the high-frequency spikes with which this document is concerned. Their levels, at least in the case of restrike-free switching operations, are generally less than twice normal voltage and are therefore not of substantial concern here, but should not be overlooked.

On the other hand, switching operations involving restrikes, such as those produced by air contactors or mercury switches, can produce, through escalation, surge voltages of complex waveshapes and of amplitudes several times greater than the normal system voltage. The severest case is generally found on the load side of the switch and involves only the device that is being switched. While this situation should certainly not be ignored, in such a case the prime responsibility for protection rests with the local user of the device in question. However, switching transients can also appear on the line side across devices connected to the line. The presence and source of transients may be unknown to the users of those devices. This potentially harmful situation occurs often enough to command attention.

2. Occurrence and Voltage Levels in Unprotected Circuits

2.1 Rate of Occurrence Versus Voltage Level

The rate of occurrence of surges varies over wide limits, depending on the particular system. Prediction of the rate for a particular system is always difficult and frequently impossible. Rate is related to the level of the surges; low-level surges are more prevalent than high-level surges [3]. Data collected from many sources (Appendix I) have led to the plot shown in Figure 1. This prediction shows with certainty only a *relative* frequency of occurrence, while the absolute number of occurrences can be described only for an "average location." The "high exposure" and "low exposure" limits of the band are shown as a guide, not as absolute limits [2], to reflect both the location exposure (lightning activity in the area and the nature of the system) and the exposure to switching surges created by other loads. Such data are useful in that they describe the maximum levels likely to be encountered and give some estimate of the rate of occurrence of such surges. Of equal importance is the observation that surges in the range of 1 to 2 kV are fairly common in residential circuits.

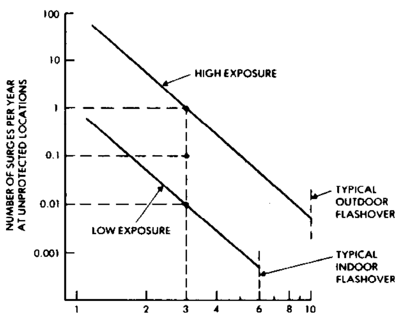


Figure 1. Rate of Surge Occurrence vs Voltage Level

From the relative values of Figure 1, two typical levels can be cited for practical applications. First, the expectation of a 3 kV transient occurrence on a 120 V circuit ranges from 0.01 to 1 per year at a given location - a number sufficiently high to justify the recommendation of a minimum 3 kV withstand capability. Second, the wiring flashover limits indicate that a 6 kV withstand capability may be sufficient to ensure device survival indoors, but a 10 kV withstand capability may be required outdoors.

2.2 Timing of Occurrence

Surges occur at random times with respect to the power frequency, and the failure mode of equipment may be affected by the power frequency follow current. Furthermore, the timing of the surge with respect to the power frequency may affect the level at which failure occurs [4]. Consequently, surge testing must be done with the line voltage applied to the test piece.

3. Waveshape of Representative Surge Voltages

3.1 Waveshapes in Actual Occurrences

Indoor - Measurements in the field, measurements in the laboratory, and theoretical calculations indicate that most surge voltages in indoor low-voltage systems have oscillatory waveshapes, unlike the well-known and generally accepted unidirectional waves specified in high-voltage insulation standards. A surge impinging on the system excites the natural resonant frequencies of the conductor system. As a result, not only are the surges typically oscillatory, but surges may have different amplitudes and waveshapes at different places in the system. These oscillatory frequencies of surges range from 5 kHz to more than 500 kHz. A 30 to 100 kHz frequency is a realistic measure of a "typical" surge for most residential and light industrial ac line networks.

Outdoor - Surges encountered in outdoor locations have also been recorded, some being oscillatory [5], others being unidirectional. Because the overriding concern here is the energy associated with these surges, a conservative but realistic description of the surges can be derived from the long-established specified duty of a secondary arrester, as detailed in Paragraph 3.2. While this specification is arbitrary, it has the strength of experience and successful usage.

3.2 Selection of Representative Waveshapes

The definition of a waveshape to be used as representative of the environment is important for the design of candidate protective devices, since unrealistic requirements, such as excessive duration of the voltage or very low source impedance, place a high energy requirement on the suppressor, with a resulting cost penalty to the end user. The two requirements defined below reflect this trade-off.

Indoor - Based on measurements conducted by several independent organizations in 120 and 240 V systems (Appendix I), the waveshape shown in Figure 2 is reasonably representative of surge voltage in these power circuits. Under the proposed description of a "0.5 μs x 100 kHz ring wave," this waveshape rises in 0.5 μs, then decays while oscillating at 100 kHz, each peak being about 60% of the preceding peak.

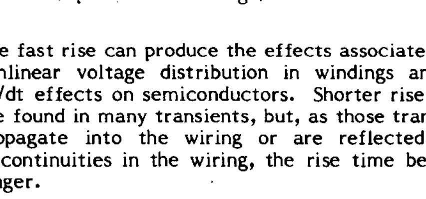


Figure 2. The Proposed 0.5 μs x 100 kHz Ring Wave (Open-circuit Voltage)

The fast rise can produce the effects associated with nonlinear voltage distribution in windings and the dv/dt effects on semiconductors. Shorter rise times are found in many transients, but, as those transients propagate into the wiring or are reflected from discontinuities in the wiring, the rise time becomes longer.

The oscillating and decaying tail produces the effects of voltage polarity reversals in surge suppressors or other devices that may be sensitive to polarity changes. Some semiconductors are particularly sensitive to damage when being forced into or out of a conducting state, or when the transient is applied during a particular portion of the 60 Hz supply cycle (Appendix II). The response of a surge suppressor can also be affected by reversals in the polarity, as in the case of RC attenuation before a rectifier circuit in a dc power supply.

The pulse withstand capability of many semiconductors tends to improve if the surge duration is much shorter than one microsecond. For this reason, the first half-cycle of the test wave must have a sufficient duration.

Outdoor - In the outdoor and service entrance environment, as well as in locations close to the service entrance, substantial energy, or current, is still available. For these locations, the unidirectional impulses long established for secondary arresters are more appropriate than the oscillatory wave.

Accordingly, the recommended waveshape is 1.2 x 50 μs for open-circuit voltage and 8 x 20 μs for short-circuit current or current in a low-impedance device. The numbers used to describe the impulse, 1.2 x 50 and 8 x 20, are as defined in IEEE Standard 28 - ANSI Standard C62.1; Figure 3 presents the waveshape and a graphic description of the numbers.

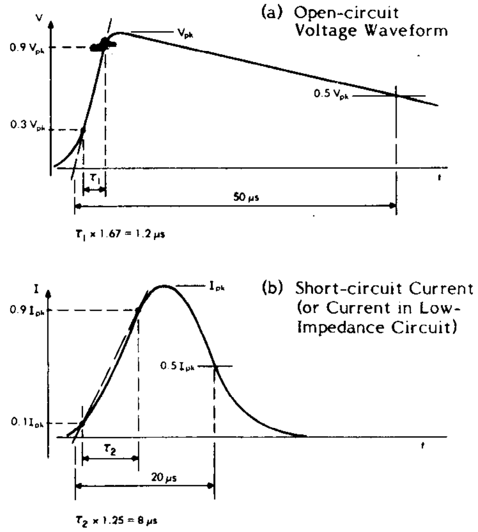


Figure 3. Waveshapes for Outdoor Locations

4. Energy and Source Impedance

4.1 General

The energy involved in the interaction of a power system with a surge source and a surge suppressor will divide between the source and the suppressor in accordance with the characteristics of the two impedances. In a gap-type suppressor, the low impedance of the arc after sparkover forces most of the energy to be dissipated elsewhere: for instance, in a power-follow current-limiting resistor that has been added in series with the gap. In an energy-absorber suppressor, by its very nature, a substantial share of the surge energy is dissipated in the suppressor, but its clamping action does not involve the power-follow energy resulting from the short-circuit action of a gap. It is therefore essential to the effective use of suppression devices that a realistic assumption be made about the source impedance of the surge whose effects are to be duplicated.

The voltage wave shown in Figure 2 is intended to represent the waveshape a surge source would produce across an open circuit. The waveshape will be different when the source is connected to a load having a lower impedance, and the degree to which it is lower is a function of the impedance of the source [6].

The degree to which source impedance is important depends largely on the type of surge suppressors that are used. The surge suppressors must be able to withstand the current passed through them by the surge source. A test generator of too high an impedance may not subject the device under test to sufficient stresses, while a generator of too low an impedance may subject protective devices to unrealistically severe stresses. A test voltage wave specified without reference to source impedance could imply zero source impedance - one capable of producing that voltage across any impedance, even a short circuit. That would imply an infinite surge current, clearly an unrealistic situation.

4.2 Proposed Approach

Because of the wide range of possible source impedances and the difficulty of selecting a specific value, three broad categories of building locations are proposed to represent the vast majority of locations [7,8], from those near the service entrance to those remote from it. The source impedance of the surge increases from the outside to locations well within the building. Open-circuit voltages, on the other hand, show little variation within a building because the wiring provides little attenuation [9]. Table 1 outlines the three categories of building wiring.

Table 2 shows open-circuit voltages and short-circuit currents for each of the three categories. The energy deposited in a 500 V suppressor has been computed and is shown for each of the categories.

TABLE 1

Location Categories

A. Outside and Service Entrance
- Service drop from pole to building entrance
- Run between meter and distribution panel
- Overhead line to detached buildings
- Underground lines to well pumps

B. Major Feeders and Short Branch Circuits
- Distribution panel devices
- Bus and feeder systems in industrial plants
- Heavy appliance outlets with "short" connections to the service entrance
- Lighting systems in commercial buildings

C. Outlets and Long Branch Circuits
- All outlets at more than 10 m (30 ft) from Category B with wires #14-10
- All outlets at more than 20 m (60 ft) from Category A with wires #14-10

TABLE 2

Ranges of Voltage and Currents

Location	Maximum Impulse	Energy Deposited in a 500 V Suppressor
A. Outdoor and Service Entrance	• 10 kV 1.2 x 50 μs for high-impedance circuits • 10 kA 8 x 20 μs for low-impedance circuits	150
B. Major Feeders and Short Branch Circuits	• 6 kV 1.2 x 50 μs for high-impedance circuits • 3 kA 8 x 20 μs for impedance circuits	40
	• 6 kV 0.5 μs x 100 kHz for high-impedance circuits • 500 A short circuit for low-impedance circuits	2
C. Long Branch Circuits and Outlets	• 6 kV 0.5 μs x 100 kHz for high-impedance circuits • 200 A short circuit for low-impedance circuits	0.8

The values shown in the table represent the maximum range, corresponding to the "High Exposure" situation of Figure 1. For less exposed systems, or when the prospect of a failure is not highly objectionable, one could specify lower values of open-circuit voltages with corresponding reductions in the currents.

5. Conclusion

The broad range of surge voltages occurring in low-voltage ac power circuits can be simulated by a limited set of test waves, for the purpose of evaluating their effects on equipment.

Field measurements, laboratory experiments, and calculations indicate that two basic waves, at various open-circuit voltages and short-circuit current values, can represent the majority of surges occurring in residential, commercial, and light industrial power systems rated up to 600 V rms.

Exceptions will be found to the simplification of a broad guideline; however, these should not detract from the benefits that can be expected from a reasonably valid uniformity in defining the environment. Other test waves of different shapes may be appropriate for other purposes, and the present guideline should not be imposed where it is not applicable.

6. Acknowledgments

The members of the IEEE Working Group contributed the data, shown in Appendix I, that shaped this guideline. Helpful comments, discussions, and reviews by all members of the Surge Protective Devices Committee are also acknowledged. The author is particularly indebted to the contributions of Catharine Fisher and Peter Richman for the presentation and discussion of the concepts and recommendations made in this guideline.

Appendix I - Data Base

Recordings and surge counter data have been contributed from several sources, in addition to the surge counter data obtained by members of the working group. Representative oscillograms and summary statistics are reproduced in this appendix, in support of the voltage levels and oscillatory wave proposals.

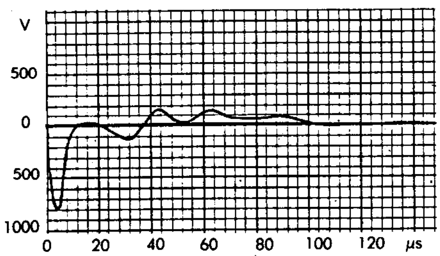
1. Recordings by Bell Telephone Laboratories

(Data contributed by P. Speranza, internal report, unpublished to date)

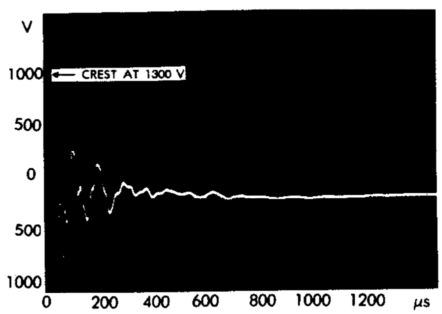
1.1 Typical Surge Counter Statistics
120 V line at BTL facility in Chester, New Jersey, during 42 months of monitoring:

146 counts at 300 to 500 V
14 counts at 500 to 1000 V
3 counts at 1000 to 1500 V
3 counts above 1500 V

1.2 Typical Automatic Recording Oscilloscopes



120 V OUTLET, LABORATORY BENCH



277/480 V SERVICE ENTRANCE

2. Recordings by General Electric Company

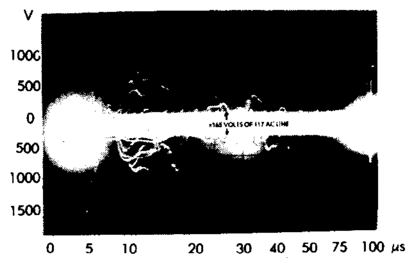
(Data contributed by F.D. Martzloff [2])

2.1 Surge Counter Statistics

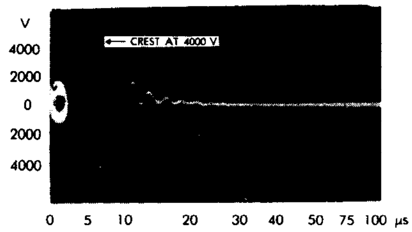
a) Three percent of all U.S. residences experience frequent occurrences (one per week or more) above 1200 V

b) There is a 100:1 reduction in the rate of device failure when the withstand level is raised from 2 kV to 6 kV.

2.2 Typical Automatic Recording Oscilloscopes



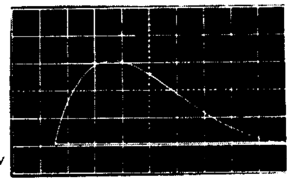
FURNACE IGNITION - 24 HOUR PERIOD



STREET POLE, LIGHTNING STORM

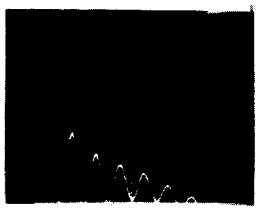
2.3 Simulated Lightning Strokes on a Residential Power Circuit (Laboratory Model of System) [9]

1.5 kA current impulse (8 x 20 μs approx.) is injected in ground wire only of service drop. (Higher currents produce flashover of wiring)



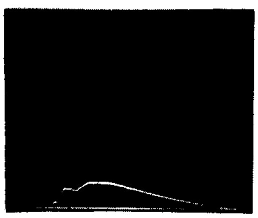
500 A/div
5 μs/div

Recording of open-circuit voltage at a branch circuit outlet:
2200 V peak 500 kHz oscillations



500 V/div
2 μs/div

By connecting a 130 Ω load at the same outlet (1A load) the voltage is reduced to 1400 V peak, with more damping.



500 V/div
2 μs/div

Conclusions From This Test Series

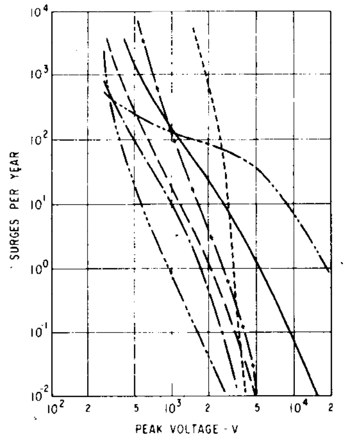
1. A current of 1.5 kA (moderate for a lightning discharge injected in the ground system) raises the wiring system of the house 2.2 kV above ground. Four kiloamperes (still a moderate value) will bring this voltage to 6 kV, the typical flashover value of the wiring.
2. A natural frequency of 500 kHz is excited by a unidirectional impulse.

3. In this example, the source of the transient (from the loading effect of 130 Ω) appears as

$$Z = 130\,\Omega\left[\frac{2200}{1400} - 1\right] = 75\,\Omega$$

3. Statistics By Landis and Gyr Company

Surge counter data on various locations in Swiss 220 V systems (Data contributed by L. Regez - unpublished to date)



- Service entrance, 16-family house, underground system
- Same house, outlet third floor living room
- Same house, outlet fifth floor living room
- Service entrance of bank building in Basel
- Landis and Gyr Plant, Zug, outlet in lab.
- Landis and Gyr, Zug, outlet in furnace room
- Farmhouse supplied by overhead lines

4. Working Group Surge Counter Statistics

Surge counters with four threshold levels (350, 500, 1000, and 1500 V) were used to record surge occurrences at various locations. Members of the Working Group installed these on 120 and 240 V systems of various types, including the following: outlets in urban, suburban, and rural residences; outlets in a hospital; secondary circuits on distribution system poles (recloser controls); secondary of pad-mounted distribution transformers; lighting circuits in an industrial plant; life test racks at an appliance manufacturer; bench power supply in a laboratory.

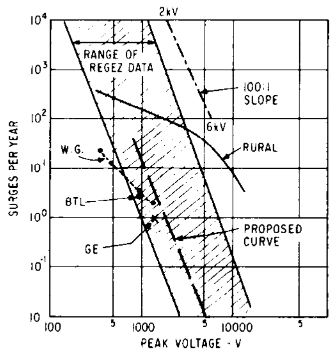
Summary Statistics of these measurements are as follows:

1. Data base from 18 locations with a total recording time of 12 years spread over 4 calendar years, using 6 counters.
2. Number of occurrences per year (weighted averages) at "average location."
   - 350 V: 22
   - 500 V: 11
   - 1000 V: 7
   - 1500 V: 3
3. Significant extremes
   - One home with large number of surges caused by washer operation.
   - Four locations out of 18 never experienced a surge.
   - One home experienced several occurrences above 1500 V, with none below that value.
   - One industrial location (switching of a test rack) produced thousands of surges in the 350-500 V range, and several surges in excess of 1500 V. This location was left out of the average computation, but it exemplifies a significant extreme.

From the data base cited in the preceding pages, one can draw the chart below, including the following information on voltage vs frequency (rate) of occurrence:

1. The Bell Laboratories data yield a point of 1000 V at about 2 occurrences per year (•).
2. The General Electric counter statistics yield a point of 1200 V at about 1 occurrence per year (x).
3. The General Electric clock data indicate a *slope* of 100:1 from 2 kV to 6 kV (— - — -).
4. The Regez data provide a band for the majority of locations (shown cross-hatched), with the exception of the rural location with long overhead line, which has more occurrences.
5. Working Group statistics (. -- . --) indicate a less steep slope, perhaps because of the influence of outdoor locations included in the sample (similar to the rural data of Regez).

The proposed curve, which is the center of the ±10 range of Figure 1, is shown in bold dashed lines (— — —). It has been drawn at the 100:1 slope, passing near the Bell and General Electric points and located within the band of the Regez data.



Appendix II - Effect of Transient Polarity Reversals on Semiconductors

Breakdown of semiconductors under various conditions of load and transient overvoltage applications has been investigated.† Evidence is presented in the two investigations cited that a reverse voltage applied during the conduction period of the power frequency produces lower breakdown voltages than the application of the same transient with no load or during blocking. Examples are given below, taken from these two investigations, showing statistically significant differences in the voltage levels.

		Average Breakdown (V)
IN1190 Diode*	Transient at no load	1973
	Fast wave under load	830
	Slow wave under load	1097
IN2160 Diode*	Transient at no load	2056
	Fast wave under load	894
	Slow wave under load	1106
IN679 Diode †	Transient applied at:	
	- peak of reverse voltage	1766
	-25° after start of conduction	1181
	-90° after start of conduction	906
	-155° after start of conduction	1115

This effect is one of the reasons for selecting an oscillatory waveform to represent the environment: it will be more likely to induce semiconductor failures than a unidirectional wave. Also, it shows the significance of the timing of the transient application with respect to the power frequency cycle.

Appendix III - Notes and References

1. Surge Voltage

Definitions of terms used in this guideline are consistent with IEEE Standard 100-1977, *Dictionary of Electrical and Electronic Terms,* 2nd ed.; however, some differences exist. For instance, IEEE Std 100-1977 defines a surge as a "transient wave of current, potential or power in the electric circuit"--a definition broader than that used

*Chowdhuri, P., "Transient-Voltage Characteristics of Silicon Power Rectifiers," IEEE IA-9, 5, September/October 1973, p. 582.

† F.D. Martzloff, internal report, unpublished.

here. *Transient overvoltage* is defined as "the peak voltage during the transient condition resulting from the operation of a switching device"--a definition more restricted than that of the present guideline.

2. Amplitudes of Strikes, Worst Case

The surge voltages described in this guideline include lightning effects on power systems, mostly strikes in the vicinity of a power line, or at a remote point of the power system. The literature describes the frequency of occurrence vs amplitude of lightning strikes, from the low levels of a few kiloamperes, through the median values of about 20 kA, to the exceptional values in excess of 100 kA. Clearly, a secondary arrester rated for 10 kA can protect adequately in case of a mild direct strike, or of a more severe strike divided among several paths to ground. However, a very high and direct strike will exceed the capability of an ANSI-rated secondary arrester.

References:

Cianos, N. and E.T.Pierce, *A Ground-Lightning Environment for Engineering Usage*, Stanford Research Institute, Menlo Park, CA 94205, August 1972.

Bodle, D.W., A.J. Ghazi, M. Syed, and R.L. Woodside, *Characterization of the Electrical Environment*, Toronto and Buffalo, N.Y.: University of Toronto Press, 1976.

Martzloff, F.D. and G.J. Hahn, "Surge Voltage in Residential and Industrial Power Circuits," *IEEE PAS-89*, 6, July/August 1970, 1049-1056.

3. Level vs Rate of Occurrence

The relationship between the level and the rate of occurrence of surges is partly caused by the attenuation of the surges as they propagate away from the source of the surge and divide among paths beyond branching points. Equipment at a given point will be subjected to a relatively small number of high-level surges from nearby sources, but to a larger number of surges from more remote sources.

4. Timing of Surges with Respect to Power Frequency

Lightning surges are completely random in their timing with respect to the power frequency. Switching surges are likely to occur near or after current zero, but variable load power factors will produce a quasi-random distribution. Some semiconductors, as shown in Appendix II, exhibit failure levels that depend on the timing of the surge with respect to the conduction of power frequency current. Gaps or other devices involving a power-follow current may withstand this power follow with success, depending upon the fraction of the half-cycle remaining after the surge before current zero. Therefore, it is important to consider the timing of the surge with respect to the power frequency. In performing tests, either complete randomization of the timing or controlled timing should be specified, with a sufficient number of timing conditions to reveal the most critical timing.

5. Oscillatory Surges During Lightning

The "classical lightning surge" has been established as 1.2 x 50 μs for a voltage wave and 8 x 20 μs for a current wave. Evidence has been collected, however, to show that oscillations can also occur. Lenz reports 50 lightning surges recorded in two locations, the highest at 5.6 kV, with frequencies ranging from 100 to 500 kHz. Martzloff reports oscillatory lightning surges in a house during a multiple-stroke flash.

References:

Lenz, J.E., "Basic Impulse Insulation Levels of Mercury Lamp Ballast for Outdoor Applications," *Illuminating Engrg.*, February 1964, pp. 133-140.

Martzloff, F.D. and G.J. Hahn, "Surge Voltage in Residential and Industrial Power Circuit," *IEEE PAS-89*, 6, July/August 1970, 1049-1056.

6. Surge Impedance and Source Impedance

To prevent misunderstanding, a distinction between *source impedance* and *surge impedance* needs to be made. Surge impedance, also called *characteristic impedance*, is a concept relating the parameters of a long line to the propagation of traveling waves. For the wiring practices of the ac power circuits discussed here, this characteristic impedance would be in the range of 150 to 300 Ω, but because the durations of the waves being discussed (50 to 20 μs) are much longer than the travel times in the wiring systems being considered, traveling wave analyses are not useful here.

Source impedance, defined as "the impedance presented by a source of energy to the input terminals of a device, or network" (IEEE Standard 100), is a more useful concept here.

7. Power System Source Impedance

The measurements from which Figure 1 was derived were of voltage only. Little was known about the impedance of the circuits upon which the measurements were made. Since then, measurements have been reported on the impedance of power systems. Bull reports that the impedance of a power system, seen from the outlets, exhibits the characteristics of a 50Ω resistor with 50 μH in parallel. Attempts were made to combine the observed 6 kV open-circuit voltage with the assumption of a 50 Ω/50 μH impedance. This combination resulted in low energy deposition capability, which was contradicted by field experience of suppressor performance. The problem led to the proposed definition of oscillatory waves as well as high-energy unidirectional waves, in order to provide both the effects of an oscillatory wave and the high-energy deposition capability.

Reference:

Bull, J.H., "Impedance of the Supply Mains at Radio Frequencies," *Proceedings of 1st Symposium on EMC*, 75CH1012-4 Mont., Montreux, May 1975.

8. Installation Categories

Subcommittee 28A of the International Electrotechnical Commission has prepared a report, referenced below, in which installation categories are defined. These installation categories divide the power systems according to the location in the building, in a manner similar to the location categories defined in this guideline. However, there are some significant differences between the two concepts. First, the IEC categories are defined for a "Controlled Voltage Situation," a phrase that implies the presence of some surge suppression device or surge attenuation mechanism to reduce the voltage levels from one category to the next. Second, the IEC report is more concerned with insulation coordination than with the application of surge protective devices; therefore it does not address the question of the coordination of the protectors, but rather the coordination of insulation levels - that is, voltages. Source impedances, in contrast to this guideline, have not been defined. Further discussion and work toward the application guidelines of both documents should eventually produce a consistent set of recommendations.

Reference:

Insulation Coordination Within Low-Voltage Systems Including Clearances and Creepage Distances for Equipment, International Electrotechnical Commission, Report SC28A (Central Office) 5, to be published in 1979.

9. Open-Circuit Voltages and Wiring Flashover

Surges propagate with very little attenuation in a power system with no substantial connected loads. Measurements made in an actual residential system as well as in a laboratory simulation have shown that the most significant limitation is produced by wiring flashover, not be attenuation along the wires. Ironically, a carefully insulated installation is likely to experience higher surge voltages than an installation where wiring flashover occurs at low levels. Therefore, the open-circuit voltage specified at the origin of a power system must be assumed to propagate unattenuated far into the system, which is the reason for maintaining the 6 kV surge specification when going from the "B" location to the "C" location.

References:

Martzloff, F.D. and K.E. Crouch "Coordination de la protection contre les surtensions dans les réseaux basse tension résidentiels," *Proceedings, 1978 IEEE Canadian Conference on Communications and Power*, 78CH1373-O, pp. 451-454.

Martzloff, F.D. *Surge Voltage Suppression in Residential Power Circuits*, Report 76CRD092, Corporate Research and Development, General Electric Company, Schenectady, N.Y., 1976.